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ABSTRACT

This paper examines research on teacher burnout, using the self-efficacy theory as the framework. It explains that designing a program to help teachers improve classroom management and thus prevent classroom disorder may contribute to the prevention of burnout. Chapter 1 introduces the issue of teacher burnout. Chapter 2 discusses burnout research, focusing on definitions, the domain, the situation, and the origin, causes, and consequences of burnout. Chapter 3 explains on the self-efficacy theory and describes how the theory is applied to the teacher-student relationship. Chapter 4 examines the current situation with teacher burnout and highlights seven observations: (1) the relationship of burnout to student behavior and behavior management; (2) classroom management skills; (3) self-efficacy skill requirements; (4) difficulties in classroom management; (5) classroom management of social interactions; (6) classroom discipline; and (7) burnout due to lack of discipline. Chapter 5 discusses on individual intervention, examining sources for strengthening self-efficacy beliefs, intervention programs and results, and intervention based on self-efficacy. Chapter 6 presents conclusions. Chapter 7 discusses the necessity of developing an intervention program. (Contains approximately 115 references.) (SM)

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THE PREVENTION AND MENDING OF BURNOUT AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

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Technical Report
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Contents

Chapter 1	Introduction	3
Chapter 2	Burnout research	5
1	Burnout: definition and dimensions	5
2	Domain	6
3	Process or situation	7
4	The origin of burnout	7
4.1	The basic cause of burnout	8
5	The consequences of burnout	9
Chapter 3	The self-efficacy theory	10
1	Self-efficacy described	10
2	Self-efficacy and control	11
3	Self-efficacy, some developments	12
4	Change of self-efficacy: behavioral plasticity	13
Chapter 4	Teacher burnout	15
1	The present situation: many teachers are burnout	15
2	Teacher burnout and behavioral management of pupils	16
3	Behavioral and cognitive aspects of classroom management	16
3.1	The behavioral aspect of classroom management: the necessity of skills	17
3.2	The cognitive aspect: the necessity of self-efficacy	18
3.3	Burnout because of weak self-efficacy beliefs	19
4	Managing pupils	21
4.1	Difficulties in classroom management	21
4.2	Classroom management of social interactions	23
5	Classroom discipline	24
6	No discipline means heading for burnout	25
Chapter 5	To an individual intervention	27
1	Sources for strengthening self-efficacy beliefs	27
2	Intervention programs and results	28
3	Intervention based on self-efficacy	30
Chapter 6	Conclusion	32
Chapter 7	The necessity of developing an intervention program	35
References		40

Chapter 1

PREVENTION OF BURNOUT

INTRODUCTION

A substantial percentage of people who work with and for others will fall victim to burnout during their professional career. They will often not be able to continue work any longer in their profession. This is also the case in the teaching profession. Research revealed that pupils'disruptive behavior, especially disorder in the classroom, could be looked upon as a possible cause of teacher burnout (Brouwers & Tomic, 1998; Barquist, Hogelucht & Geist, 1997). It goes without saying that teachers should possess the specific skills to successfully manage their class. An important prerequisite for the attainment of this purpose is a high level of perceived self-efficacy. According to Bandura (1997) self-efficacy could be described as: "the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments" (p.3). However, the self-efficacy beliefs to manage class are not stable and will fluctuate during a teacher's professional career. The following process may develop and become perceptible. In the first phase the teacher will become uncertain when confronted with new or challenging tasks which, as a result of that will be shunned. Dissatisfaction about the work performances and the achieved results will reinforce feelings of doubt about the quality of his or her work. Gradually pupils will notice the teacher's self-doubts, and they consequently take over the initiative in the every day negotiations about classroom management: they instead of the teacher decide what is going to happen in the classroom. This process should not be given the chance to develop, and if it does though, be stopped as soon as possible, in the interest of all parties involved in the educational process. In many cases the teachers will have to be helped to get back the trust in their skills in order to be able to manage class on a qualitatively high level. The question if and in which way intervention helps teachers from not becoming burnout because of disruptive pupil behavior is the main problem to be answered in this study.

In this study the self-efficacy theory is the framework to be used in a possible intervention program. Designing a program that helps teachers to improve classroom management and thus prevent classroom disorder may contribute to the prevention of burnout.

Before participating in an intervention program it must be clear whether the teacher lacks the self-efficacy to manage class or the skills necessary for good classroom management. The diagnosis is meant to provide the teacher with a program suited for his or her specific situation. In case one, self-efficacy reinforcement intervention exercises are necessary, whereas in the second case skills as such should be trained. As teachers differ in respect to self-efficacy or skills, they had better be offered individually focused training. First, burnout in a general sense will be discussed, then the self-efficacy theory and after that teacher burnout. The study continues with the application of the results found in literature into a suggested burnout intervention program.

Chapter 2

BURNOUT RESEARCH

In the last few years the burnoutsyndrome has been studied intensively almost all over the world. The next phase, how to put the theoretical findings into practical interventions seems one step too bold. In this study theory and practice are connected, especially by answering the question how to tackle burnout. In the theoretical part questions as what is burnout, to what degree do teachers suffer from burnout, what are the causes and consequences of burnout will be answered. The answers to these questions are important for the development and design of an intervention program. For this purpose a theoretical framework is needed for reasons of explaining the problem and developing a model for the approach of burnout.

1 BURNOUT: DEFINITION AND DIMENSIONS

In literature various definitions of burnout are found. In a general sense there is agreement on the idea that burnout is a multi-dimensional construct. These dimensions are connected with each other, but at the same time they are independent entities. This view is found in the generally accepted definition of burnout by Maslach and Jackson (1986). According to their definition burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment. The syndrome is especially manifest in people who work with or for people. People who are burnout appear to suffer from a lack of emotional resources and a high degree of depersonalization and they believe they hardly achieve any personal accomplishments. Emotional exhaustion is expressed by feelings of fatigue because of a depletion of a person's emotional energy. Depersonalization refers to the development of negative and callous behavior in the relation to others. And last, a burnout person values personal accomplishments as being insufficient, and shows feelings of dissatisfaction because of that (Byrne, 1991).

There are authors on the burnout subject who posit that burnout people have a chronic difficulty in dealing with stress (Burke, Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996). This may indeed be the case, but it is important to emphasize the fact that stress and burnout are different concepts and that stress does not automatically result in burnout. In view of the seriousness of the syndrome it is necessary to find out the common features of the various burnout definitions so

that they can be taken into account when developing an intervention program. Maslach and Schaufeli (1993) found five common characteristics in the definitions they scrutinized.

1 People suffering from burnout show symptoms of unrest and dissatisfaction, like emotional exhaustion, fatigue and depression

2 Mental as well as behavioral problems are emphasized, but physical complaints are also mentioned.

3 Burnout is connected with someone's job.

4 Burnout symptoms occur in people who have not suffered from psychological diseases before.

5 There is a diminished effectness in one's job accompanied by diminished accomplishments because of negative workattitudes and behavior in general.

When developing an intervention program, it is important to bear in mind the multi dimensionality of burnout, viz. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment. The dimensions indicating the existence of burnout, are connected, but will appear at different moments and on different levels of seriousness.

2 DOMAIN

Originally, burnout was used for professionals working for and with people who were dependent on their help, for instance nurses, social workers, police-officers, or social lawyers (Cherniss, 1980). Later, some researchers stressed the inter-human relations during the job as the main cause of burnout.

It is important to answer the question in which job professionals run the risk of falling victims to burnout. The seriousness of the syndrome makes it worth while to solve it. In the course of the years, an ever-increasing number of jobs was mentioned causing burnout among its workers. The enlarged domain raises the question whether researchers are still studying the same original burnout phenomenon (Glass & McKnight, 1996). It seems as if all work related problems are reduced to the same burnout denominator. By enlarging the subject of our study in this way, adequate measures for prevention or intervention would become very difficult.

The original definition (see before) is the point of departure in this study and burnout is viewed as a syndrome especially manifest among professionals in the so-called human professions (Freudenberger, 1974; Cherniss, 1980). It goes without saying that teachers belong to this group of professionals.

3 PROCESS OR SITUATION

When developing an intervention program for burnout professionals, it is important to consider the time-aspect of the syndrome. Two opposing views stand out. The one looks upon burnout as a situation and the other views burnout as a process developing in someone's life. Burke and Richardsen speak about burnout as 'the burnout process'...(Burke & Richardsen, 1999, p. 102). According to Cherniss (1980) the process shows three stages. First, the stage in which there is an unbalanced situation between the demands of the job and the individual's resources to meet these demands. Second, the stage that is characterized by an immediate and short-lived emotional response to the ill-balanced situation, in which fatigue, anxiety, stress and exhaustion are manifest. In the third stage of the burnout process a number of behavioral and attitudinal changes crop up. Most striking are the impersonal and distant ways in which clients are treated, along with the fixation on one's own needs. Results from various studies underline the fact that burnout should be looked upon as a process (Burke, Greenglass & Schwarzer, 1996; Westman & Eden, 1997). This point of view is quite understandable, because newcomers in the human professions do not suffer from burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Only after some time will the first syptoms of burnout appear. Farber (1983) puts it in this way: "There is no dichotomy when speaking about burnout: to be or not to be burnout". In literature there is little or no support for the opinion that burnout is to be viewed as a situation.

In this study too, burnout is viewed as a process. We agree with Westman and Eden (1997) who posit that when removing the stressors causing burnout the origin and/or development can be prevented from coming into existence. Burnout is no situation in which someone will have to live for the rest of his or her life, but it can be mastered with adequate support and intervention.

4 THE ORIGIN OF BURNOUT

It is hard to find an answer to the origin of burnout. The social cognitive theory offers an interesting possibility to get a better understanding of the syndrome. This theory is a reaction to the behaviorist theory that dominated psychology for quite some time. Behaviorists try to explain human behavior with the so-called stimulus-response sequence. Gradually association chains are formed and large entities of association chains come into existence, which can account for human complex behavior. In spite of the criticism of late

years on the behavioral theory, part of human behavior can be explained by it. However, especially complex human behavior could not be explained by the behaviorists. Cognitive processes, for instance the origin and development of speech or social behavior, could not satisfactorily be explained. This instigated Bandura to develop a theory that connected the observable human behavior with the non-observable inner processes. Important aspects of human behavior, such as speech, thought and learning can be explained in a more acceptable way by the social cognitive theory. This theory enables an insight in how human behavior is influenced by the social surroundings. Bandura's experiments proved that people learn by observing others. The observed behavior can be imitated at once, but it may also be put off till a later suitable moment arises.

According to the social cognitive theory four processes can be distinguished in learning, viz. attentional, retention, production and motivational processes (Bandura, 1977). In order to explain human behavior as a development in the course of time, Bandura uses the term "personal agency". The term agency refers to acts done intentionally. Man as the agent of his own behavior needs positive feelings of self-efficacy to lead a happy life. It is an important starting-point of the social cognitive theory that people are both able and willing to control their own lives.

4.1 THE BASIC CAUSE OF BURNOUT

The social cognitive theory offers an important basis when looking for the origins of burnout. Departing from this theory it may be concluded that it is not the tasks someone has to perform which are the sources of stress, but somebody's perceived self-efficacy to successfully carry out these tasks (Vrugt, 1995). Organizational and individual aspects are sources of burnout in this view. This point of view offers a clear explanation for the fact that some people doing one and the same sort of work get burnout and others don't, which view is for instance supported by Maslach and Leiter, 1997. Person and task not being attuned to one another leads to a negative functional downward spiral. Any person's perceived self-efficacy level differs as well as the resulting consequences. In contrast to someone having a weak sense of self-efficacy, someone having a strong sense of self-efficacy will not easily fall victim to stress or burnout when confronted with a difficult task (individual aspect) or a troublesome organizational matter (organizational aspect).

Investigation reveals that if someone wants to perform an optimum task knowledge and skills are necessary, but this is not sufficient (Vrugt, 1995). The reason is that the ideas

about the Self mediate between knowledge and action (Bandura, 1985). Supposing that someone has enough skills to execute a task, it means that the ideas about the Self will decide whether the actions necessary are performed on the best possible level. In other words, the person in question has the appropriate knowledge of the actions, has consummate skills to perform the actions, and a strong sense of self-efficacy to turn knowledge and skills into successful actions. If this is the case, the person will experience hardly any situation as being stressful and consequently there are few chances for burnout to develop.

5 THE CONSEQUENCES OF BURNOUT

When burnout is diagnosed, consequences for the individual and the organization can be distinguished. It is almost unthinkable that the organization someone works for will not notice the individual's problems. The organization is certainly to suffer from the difficulties one of the members experiences. It is likely that the consequences for both the individual and the organization are intertwined, however not necessary identical.

In international literature sometimes individual, sometimes organizational and sometimes both consequences of burnout are mentioned (Burke & Richardsen, 1996). A clear survey of the consequences can be found in Van Dierendonck, Buunk and Schaufeli (1998). Consequences concerning the individual that are often mentioned are absence from work, job turnover, decreased personal efforts at work, and a diminished work satisfaction. Sometimes, psychosomatic consequences and an overall lower quality of life in general are mentioned. Related to this are tiredness and exhaustion, sleeping problems, headaches, and having a cold or influenza. Moreover, insomnia, an increase of the use of medicines and alcohol and a high bloodpressure are mentioned as well. Besides these physical complaints, various psychological problems may appear. Depression, anxiety and stress are the most common ones. When speaking about the quality of life in general we come across marital problems and a negative influence of work related factors on family life. The financial losses are one of the more important consequences of stress and burnout for the organization, because the productivity slackens and the worker's job involvement diminishes.

The consequences of burnout are so serious for both individual and organization that it is most necessary to try and find solutions for the origin of burnout in the human service professions, and in our case for teachers in particular.

Chapter 3

THE SELF-EFFICACY THEORY

Bandura's self-efficacy theory is briefly discussed in the next few sections because of its importance for the development of interventions in order to decrease the risks of running into burnout. An important point of departure of this theory is the individual's strife for exercising control about one's own life. This is a striking human quality which can be further developed by a cognitive being such as man is. The pursuit of control, the cooperation with others, and man being a cognitive creature are the most important starting points of the social cognitive theory, part of which is formed by the self-efficacy theory.

1 SELF-EFFICACY DESCRIBED

According to Bandura (1997, 1982) self-efficacy is "(…) the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments". Both the courses of action and the consequences about which a person can exercise control are manifold, they may not only be concerned with actions, but with motivation, thought, and feelings as well. The consequences may also be many and various and are concerned with someone's resilience to cope with misfortunes, or to become aware of thought patterns obstructing or stimulating intended actions. Self-efficacy also highly decides the degree of stress and depressive feelings someone experiences when dealing with taxing environmental demands. The definition clearly shows that self-efficacy is not about someone's skills. It is about someone's belief in or judgment about his or her skills. This judgment is the key factor in human agency throughout someone's life. The word agency refers, according to Bandura, to acts done intentionally (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). However, the consequences of these intentional actions may be wanted but also unintended or unwanted. Implications of the self-efficacy theory can be applied to the domain of teaching. The way a teacher works is definitely influenced by his or her self-efficacy in a particular domain of the teaching job.

Is man free to decide about his own way of life or is man's existence determined by fate? To try and get support for the conviction that man possesses capacities to help shape his own existence is an issue joined with enthusiasm by Bandura. People have to be told continuously how many capacities they own and how they can best use them. The belief in self-efficacy together with the expected outcomes of one's actions is very important in trying to influence the course of one's life. It is very useful for people to determine the locus of control of the events. Broadly speaking, two extremes can be distinguished on a gliding scale. The one extreme where people place the locus of control on events is called the outcome control. The outcome control gives information whether the actions performed will lead to a desired result. In this case people are led by the consequences of the action and not by the skills necessary to perform the action. It may be obvious that the stability in the belief to control events in one's life is rather unstable. For example, if a teacher performed an instruction period in a quiet atmosphere, he or she may start the next one with self-confidence. However, because of some pupil's disruptive behavior this period passes off very unsatisfactorily. And because of the outcome-orientated locus of control, viz. disruptive pupil and hardly any instructional progress, the teacher will leave class very down-heartedly. Outcome control will lead to differences in the teacher's emotions and moods from one lesson to the other.

If, however, control of events is found in the person, in the personal skills, the unruly lesson may turn out to be an instructive event for which, because of the belief in one's skills, solutions can be found in future. An event like this is rather a challenge than a frustration. In a person's life both extremes find a place and will influence the way someone tries to control events in life.

Bandura posits that someone's self-efficacy beliefs vary along three dimensions. First, they differ in level. Sometimes an individual believes to be able to tackle difficult tasks, other tasks will however be performed on a simple level. A teacher for example, may judge he or she can instruct unruly classes, but may shun complex administrative schoolproblems. Second, efficacy beliefs differ in strength. Strong efficacy beliefs will cause someone to persevere in his or her attempts to finish a task successfully, and difficult tasks are considered to be challenges instead of obstacles to be evaded. A teacher with strong self-efficacy beliefs will for example do anything to influence pupils' motivations to do their best at school. Third, the generality of the efficacy beliefs is the judgment of someone in how many domains he or

she will be efficacious. Some people have strong efficacy beliefs in many domains whereas others judge themselves to be efficacious in only a few domains. So, when outcome control and self-efficacy control is compared, the difference is the following. Self-efficacy control takes place before the action is started. Outcome control offers physical, social and self-evaluative information after the action has been completed. Self-efficacy theory posits that human behavior can be attributed to the Self, and self-efficacy adherents therefore reject a deterministic look on people's lives. This view offers important understandings in how to deal with environmental stressors.

3 SELF-EFFICACY, SOME DEVELOPMENTS

Below, some studies will be discussed briefly to show the consequences of the self-efficacy theory, especially the possible application of self-efficacy ideas in the educational domain. An important finding of the self-efficacy theory is the relation between someone's self-efficacy and the confidence with which someone approaches a task, but also someone's inclination to spend ample time on it and the tenacity to achieve one's goal (Bandura, 1997). These findings can be used when introducing innovative educational programs. In research concerning this subject, self-efficacy beliefs and implementation of innovative programs was looked into. And indeed, a relation was found between the successful and actual implementation of these programs and teachers with strong beliefs of self-efficacy (Stein & Wang, 1988). The efficacious teachers valued the innovations more than the teachers with weak self-efficacy beliefs did.

Self-efficacy is also important for the relation between teachers and pupils with bad behavior. Research reveals that teachers having strong self-efficacy beliefs are prepared to accept a higher degree of responsibility for disruptive pupil behavior (Kauffman et al., 1989; Meyer & Foster, 1988). It means that they believe they can do something to influence their pupils' behavior, in contrast to teachers who had weak self-efficacy beliefs and who were not prepared to take responsibility for behavior of the kind. Teachers having weak self-efficacy beliefs seem to shun challenges and reduce or even stop trying to help pupils with behavioral disorders (Kauffman & Wong, 1991). On the other hand, teachers having strong self-efficacy beliefs look upon these pupils as being susceptible to positive treatment and this is the reason why these pupils are worth while paying attention to. These teachers appear to have much confidence in their capacities to change pupils' behavioral disorders for the better.

It also appeared that teachers trained to help pupils with alcohol and drugs problems had strong self-efficacy beliefs. Because of this they were quite confident they could recognize pupils having these problems and they were actually prepared to do something about it (Kaufman Kantor, Caudill & Ungerleider, 1992).

In a more general sense it appears that teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs who perceive pupils' problems rather try to solve the problems themselves in contrast to teachers having weak self-efficacy beliefs (Hughes, Barker, Kemenoff & Hart, 1993). This finding refers to an important aspect of a teacher's possibility to help his or her pupils. A teacher should first and foremost be able to act as a skillful professional and to use his or her capacities in order to find solutions for problematic pupil behavior.

Although the predictability of behavior is decided by someone's self-efficacy beliefs, it should be borne in mind that its strength is measured separately for each domain of activities.

4 CHANGE OF SELF-EFFICACY: BEHAVIORAL PLASTICITY

It is very important for completely burnout or almost burnout people to show some degree of flexibility in their willingness to change their working habits and attitudes, or show some confidence in being able to strengthen their self-efficacy. This faculty is called behavioral plasticity (Brockner, 1988; Eden & Kinnar, 1991; Eden & Aviram, 1993).

A group of teachers was offered to take part in an intervention to enhance their career self-efficacy feelings. After some time teachers appear to develop feelings of disappointment because of not having been able to realize the expectations they originally had about their jobs. Because of this, doubts arise about the skills to keep on performing well in their work, and after that feelings of incompetence appear causing negative stress, or, even worse, burnout. But by strengthening self-efficacy beliefs in this domain the negative effects were repelled (Bush, Powel & Herzberg, 1993). Results like these were found in cases when self-efficacy strengthening was used to speeding up unemployed workers to find new jobs (Eden & Aviram, 1993). Remarkably, workers having weak self-efficacy beliefs appeared to have the strongest behavioral plasticity attitudes and were therefore very much to be influenced in the matter of strengthening self-efficacy beliefs in their skills.

Maddux and Lewis (1995) tried to find out whether an intervention program could help people boost their self-efficacy. They posit that the self-efficacy theory is very useful with regard to this, because self-efficacy can be strengthened by interventions, or because

interventions offer possibilities to experience successes in domains where people have experienced feelings of despair and demoralization. Interventions by training people result in a restoration or strengthening of someone's own skills. Soodak and Podell (1996) stress the importance of a correct diagnosis before deciding people's participation in an intervention program. Interventions should be linked in with the domain in which self-efficacy beliefs prove to be weak.

Chapter 4

TEACHER BURNOUT

Teaching clearly belongs to the human service professions. Teachers are daily involved in many social contacts, for instance with principals, colleagues, parents, and especially with pupils. In this chapter the constructs mentioned before, burnout and self-efficacy, will be dealt with in relation to the teacher and his work. First, a survey of the present situation of the teaching job will be given. Then attention will be paid to the relation between the origin of burnout and classroom management. Behavioral and cognitive aspects of classroom management will be considered in more detail. After that research concerning classroom management will be presented and as an important part of it introducing and maintaining discipline in the classroom in order to acquire the necessary educational goals. The relation between discipline and the origin of burnout is the last theme discussed in this chapter.

1 THE PRESENT SITUATION: MANY TEACHERS ARE BURNOUT

Figures from the ABP from 1995 (A Dutch pension fund, also distributing social security benefits), reveal that 44% of the total number of public officials unfit for work are teachers. More recent figures (1999) show the same high percentage of teachers in this category of public officials being unfit for work. It appears that teachers belong to the group of people who are most vulnerable to burnout. In comparison with people working in the hotel and catering industry, in transport undertaking, industry or construction, the prevalence of burnout is highest in the educational sector (CBS, 1999). This finding is in line with research proving that an important number of teachers being interviewed say that they feel they might leave the job and that they have had enough of their work (Friedman & Farber, 1992; Berkhout, Zijl & van Praag, 1998). It also appears that 65 % of the teachers points at disruptive pupil behavior being the main stressor of their work. These results clearly demonstrate the impact of burnout on the educational process. Apparently there are teachers who do not like their job any longer and who probably only perform their tasks on a minimally low level. It will be clear that a burnout teacher is someone who requires attention, energy, and perhaps money that had better be spent at the educational process itself. And for society as such, it may cause anxiety that tomorrow's generation of children will not be taught

by motivated teachers, who as a matter of fact will be a burden for sickness and unemployment benefit funds.

2 TEACHER BURNOUT AND BEHAVIORAL MANAGEMENT OF PUPILS

Studies concerning school discipline increasingly worry about disorders in many schools (Martin, 1997; Kuyper, Van der Werf & Lubbers, 1999). The orderly schoolclimate of the past decades is extinct. Society's dynamic character has its repercussions on school life. When the school is considered to be the place of learning and education in an ever-changing environmental context, it is the teacher who will have to actually realize the educational process, and who will have to come up to more demands and expectations than ever before. He will have to be the managerial leader of educational processes in the classroom and of the inter-relationships with and among pupils. In case of a lack of skills, burnout symptoms are almost sure to develop. In this chapter two causes are discussed that are at the bottom of the perceived lack of one's own skills. First, the teacher may be adequately supplied with skills, however, his self-efficacy beliefs are very weak. Second, the teacher lacks the necessary skills to be the manager of the educational processes.

3 BEHAVIORAL AND COGNITIVE ASPECTS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Teachers' weak perceived self-efficacy beliefs may find its origin in two causes. The first cause is a lack of self-efficacy beliefs, in spite of he teacher's sufficient skills to manage the class. In managing the social interactions in the classroom, cognitive skills are involved. It is related to the degree to which the teacher is convinced of possessing the capacities necessary to anticipate and solve classroom disorders; it is the teacher's level of perceived self-efficacy. If the perceived self-efficacy is weak, the teacher's skills may not be used adequately or even not at all. Gradually the unfavorable situation may arise in which a skillful teacher develops a very weak sense of self-efficacy that in turn causes burnout symptoms.

In the second case the teacher's skills are insufficient to manage the class. This behavioral aspect of managing class has to be educated and practiced in training novice teachers. On the other hand, only working as a teacher in the classroom will prove whether someone is successful in managing classroom processes. The teacher is in need of skills and knowledge about anticipating and finding proper solutions for classroom disorders. In this case the road to burnout is the following. The teacher lacks the necessary skills, because of

this classroom management is a failure, and as a result of that burnout arises. In the following section the results of the two lines of research are discussed.

3.1 THE BEHAVIORAL ASPECT OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT: THE NECESSITY OF SKILLS

Burnout is most likely to arise in case there is an important discrepancy between the nature of a person's work and the person performing the work (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The person who intends to apply for a particular job should be able to really carry out the tasks required in order to be successful. A prerequisite for this is the possession of knowledge and skills. A person who badly wants to perform a particular job, but who lacks both knowledge and skills, will absolutely appear to be a failure. It goes without saying that modern education, for instance in innovations of the Dutch primary education system and in the very innovative secondary educational "Studyhouse" system, requires entirely different skills from the ones a teacher needed some decades ago (Kuyper et al., 1999). Teachers should be aquatinted with the new didactic developments and also have the skills to teach in the innovated system. Research reveals that teachers who are not able to create an orderly and a quiet classroom atmosphere run great risks to develop burnout (Brouwers & Tomic, 1998). In other studies, the skills necessary to create order and tranquillity in educating pupils are mentioned as well. For instance, it is found that a substantial part of the teacher's attention is focused on behavioral outcomes that are not explicitly connected with the teaching of pupils, but rather with the attempts to try and establish order and cooperation (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). Skills that should be applied to attain educational goals are reduced to skills to achieve and maintain order.

It is of course also possible that some teachers do lack the skills necessary to be successful in classroom management. In that case the situation that has come into being can be explained with the so-called discrepancy model (Prakash, 1991). It means that perceiving the discrepancy between demands of the teaching job and the skills at the teacher's disposal produces feelings of stress. Previous research already revealed that the experience of stress is caused by an unbalance between the demands of the job and the skills available (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978). This unbalanced situation is followed by stressful reactions. A very interesting implication of this finding is that not only a lack of capacities but also a surplus of capacities causes stressful feelings. Teachers should be helped to find the sources of stress and after that they should be offered the chance to acquire and practice the skills to cope with the

stressors (Jenkins & Calhoun, 1991). In the attempt to cope with the stressors, for instance resulting from the lack of skills to manage pupil behavior, the next situation arises. The teacher should try and find the source of stress, for instance the inadequate management of pupil behavior. After that the teacher should be given the opportunity to do something about it. Of all the methods to effectively cope with (negative) stressors the one directed at an improvement of the teacher's professional skills and competencies is the best. This approach contrasts favorably with the method emanating from social support as well the one emanating from a cognitive re-interpretation of the stressors.

3.2 THE COGNITIVE ASPECT: THE NECESSITY OF SELF-EFFICACY

People having sufficient skills to perform a task are not always performing on an optimum level (Bandura, 1997). Teachers mostly learn sufficient skills concerning managing classroom affairs. However, this fact does not guarantee a proper application of these skills (Raudenbusch, Rowan & Cheong, 1992). The teacher should also have strong self-efficacy beliefs to use the skills. Without sufficient self-efficacy beliefs the teacher's performance will result in poor achievements and the absence of experienced successes will be the cause of stress and ultimately of burnout.

Some studies indicate that teachers with weak self-efficacy beliefs favor an emotional focused approach when confronted with problems. These teachers appear to have high burnout scores. Weak self-efficacy beliefs make teachers use management strategies based on emotions. It means that the teacher's emotions prevent a professional approach of the problem so that it is not the problem that is dealt with and therefore no successes will be experienced. This in turn will lead to the teacher's negative evaluation of his own skills, as a result of this self-efficacy beliefs grow weaker and feelings of stress increase. Stress among teachers is closely related to the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Parkay et al., 1988). The strength of self-efficacy was measured with the help of two items. The first one measured teacher self-efficacy in general: "When it really matters, a teacher can not do much about it because pupil motivation and achievement depend on his or her social environment". The second item asked after the teacher's personal self-efficacy and was worded: "If I really try I am even capable to get through to even the most difficult and unmotivated pupils". The researchers of this study posit that teachers lacking strong self-efficacy beliefs should partake in activities to enhance their self-efficacy beliefs. They refer to programs in which the teachers actually experience successes meant to boost their self-efficacy beliefs, or in which they can experience the

strength of their colleagues' motivation. Greenwood, Olejnik and Parkay (1990) proved that teachers who believed they personally possessed the necessary skills and also believed in general teacher efficacy experienced little stress. These teachers had the opinion that they could influence their pupils' achievements, or in other words were successful in their classroom management. In contrast to this group are the teachers who negatively valued their personal self-efficacy beliefs and teacher self-efficacy in general. They proved to experience more stress and they said that they were not responsible for their pupils' achievements. Self-efficacy operates as a mediating construct between skills and performance (Chwalisz, Altmaier & Russell, 1992; Maddux & Lewis, 1995).

Research into the professional self-image of teachers and their degree of burnout reveals that if teachers believe they do not professionally function well, i.e. display weak self-efficacy beliefs, the relation with burnout is rather strong (Friedman & Farber, 1992). These teachers are less capable in managing classroom processes, and they will be less satisfied with their job; pupils are going to react negatively for they sense the teachers' negative self-evaluations. Because of the pupils' negative attitudes the teachers experience a continually weakening of self-efficacy beliefs. Coladarci (1992) found a relation between the level of the teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and the tendency to leave the job. This tendency indicates the teacher's involvement in the educational process. If a teacher has strong self-efficacy beliefs the involvement will be strong as well, and moreover the relations with the pupils will also be positive, for the teacher believes in the possibility to control the pupils' achievements. The lack of confidence to manage pupil behavior is an important reason for job-turnover. It goes without saying that job-turnover decisions are mostly found at the end of the burnout process.

3.3 BURNOUT BECAUSE OF WEAK SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

Teachers who are professionally satisfied, so who are not burnout, have strong self-efficacy beliefs, but should also have the opportunity to professionally grow, so acquire more skills, and should also get more influence in the school they work (Wu & Short, 1996). The teachers should get the opportunity and the confidence to act according to their own views and they should also be able to influence the way the job is performed. Self-efficacy beliefs may function as a buffer against stress coming from non-realizable personal expectations (Jayaratne & Chess, 1986). The observation of the strength of one's self-efficacy beliefs seems to play a significant role in the decrease of burnout. A difference should be made between the teacher's capabilities (competence acquired by having skills at one's disposal)

before and after the burnout period. Competence may be an aspect of the prevention of burnout, but not of the recovery from it. Skills are important in the pre-burnout period; after burnout is diagnosed an increase of skills is of no avail for the recuperation of burnout. It means that the intervention should be focused on a restoration of the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs.

Attention should also be given to the teacher's perceived self-efficacy in the domains of classroom management and orderly classroom discipline and to the way the teacher makes his decisions and to his behavior (Friedman & Farber, 1992). The measured strength of the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management and discipline is often predicative of the teacher's classroom strategies. Although the strength of the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs is indicative of the teacher's preferences how to manage class, a warning is due here. Sometimes, researchers find high scores on self-efficacy beliefs even when teachers state they experience relatively many difficulties in classroom management. This finding may appear to be a problem when trying to positively change these teachers' classroom management skills.

Lee, Dedrick and Smith (1991) also investigated the relation between locus of control over classroom affairs and self-efficacy beliefs. Adequate classroom management in an orderly and effective atmosphere results in feelings of satisfaction. They found that information important for the determination of the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs stems from the type of pupils in the classroom. Non-cooperative pupils will weaken the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs. In this case teachers will often fall back on strategies and skills pertaining to the domain of discipline in stead of the educational domain. The results of this study prove that there is a relation between self-efficacy beliefs and the type of control used by the teacher. Woolfolk, Rosoff and Hoy (1990) approach classroom management by departing from two extremes on gliding scale. In a humanistic view the school is an educational community in which pupils study in an atmosphere of cooperative interaction and experience. Characteristics of the conservative view of control are pessimism, punishment and distrust. The first ideology seems to contribute to a reinforcement of the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs. The ideas behind this ideology is the conviction that education benefits from pupils' intrinsic motivations. The ideology of control weakens the pupils' involvement in the learning processes.

A strong self-efficacy belief does not guarantee an effective teacher's behavior in educating class (Raudenbush et al., 1992). It is even possible for teachers with strong self-efficacy beliefs to lack essential skills or knowledge. In this case the teacher overrates his achievements, although this fact is only mentioned rarely in the studies consulted.

4 MANAGING PUPILS

The term classroom management is mentioned ever more in literature. In this chapter the individual teacher and classroom management is looked into, and moreover the aspects related to it. Extra attention is spent on classroom discipline.

Management is a striking feature of organizational schoollife (Woolfolk et al., 1990). One of the main tasks in the teaching process is the establishment and maintenance of classroom order. The necessity of it is quite obvious when the obligatory character of pupils' participation in school life is considered. So, classroom management is necessary. But what is classroom management exactly? In a study after novice teachers' acquisition of management techniques the following description is found: " (…) *the terms classroom management and discipline are not synonymous. The literature generally defines classroom management as a broader umbrella term that describes teacher efforts to oversee the activities of the classroom, including the social interaction, student behavior, and learning*" (Baldwin & Martin, 1996). In this description first a distinction is made between discipline and the management of classroom activities. Furthermore, three domains of attention are mentioned when speaking about classroom management. The teacher controls classroom activities, together with keeping an eye on the social interactions in the classroom, and finally he supervises pupils' behavior and learning. Discipline is part of pupils' behavior management. The description means that the teacher should first and foremost actively decide upon and lead the classroom activities. Keeping surveillance or controlling activities certainly does not mean letting things take their own course. A second assumption is that the description clearly distinguishes three domains of classroom activities. Pupils in class should be engaged in the main activity studying. Next to it, interactions in the classroom are distinguished. The classroom population consists of mostly one adult and some twenty or thirty pupils who communicate with each other. Last, the pupils' behavior is mentioned during instruction periods and when communicating. To lead and give direction to the classroom activities with the purpose to smoothly run the learning processes is the task every teacher has to accomplish.

4.1 DIFFICULTIES IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Managing pupils is no simple task, as many teachers assent (Kuyper et al., 1999). Schools in the United States of America get help from external professionals, the school

counselors. The school counselor is not so much as responsible for specific affairs, but gives help to schools to create a good atmosphere in general. In spite of this, many of these external professionals (57 %) are often confronted with disciplinary problems. The problems especially relevant for novice teachers are related to the question of how to practically shape classroom management (Martin & Baldwin, 1996). An interesting Dutch experiment to improve classroom management is "classroom 130". It refers to a project getting a surplus value from an integration of the accompaniment of pupils and teachers. Conflict management in this experiment is dealt with in a positive way just as the way the differences in teachers' instructing attitudes are approached. For instance, the novice teacher, in general, displays a more controlling way of managing classroom processes than his more experienced colleague does. Originally, the novice teachers learned to focus on qualitative aspects in preparing instruction periods, but gradually they begin to view their pupils as "the enemy". The teachers are very much concerned about classroom control, and shift their attention from planning instructional activities, stressing their encouragement of pupils in learning activities, to activities meant to prevent disorderly behavior. These teachers do not look upon themselves as teachers in the proper sense of the word, as someone assisting pupils in the educational process. In order to survive they often have recourses to attitudes and behaviors damaging the learning process. Without proper help and assistance they will experience more stress and develop burnout symptoms at a rather early stage in their careers. Therefore, it may be concluded that experienced teachers falling back on using wrong classroom management techniques will experience more stress and develop burnout symptoms. The consequences are not only negative for the teacher involved but also for the classroom that is turned into a place in which pupils do not find the best available opportunities to acquire knowledge.

In a study after how future teachers tried to manage their classroom activities, three aspects of how to control learning processes appeared to be important (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). The first process refers to the idea that classroom control varies between two extremes, from the humanistic view to the conservative view. The second refers to the teacher's orientation on motivation: is motivation judged to be of an intrinsic or an extrinsic character. And the last aspect refers to the teacher's bureaucratic orientation, or to what degree do teachers support attitudes, values, and behavior advocated by the school organization. Teachers, who believed that education is an important aspect in their pupils' lives, appeared to have stronger self-efficacy beliefs and to support a more humanistic way of controlling classroom activities.

When managing pupil behavior teachers appear not to react in the same way to disorderly behavior. Research reveals that 30 percent of the teachers who negatively judged particular ways of behavior and believed it to be of an intolerable nature, was not prepared to accept responsibility for it (Kauffman, Wills Lloyd & McGee, 1989). Behavior that was considered to be most unacceptable and negative referred to pupil behavior causing loss of classroom control, disciplinary problems, and behavior thwarting the teacher's directives or requests. Aggressive, non-social and disruptive behavior was found to be unacceptable. When a large part of the teachers states they do not believe in their own self-efficacy to manage this type of pupil behavior, a large part of the pupils will fall behind in acquiring the necessary educational goals, and at the same time the teachers' self-efficacy will become even weaker.

4.2 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL INTERACTIONS

Teachers appear to devote more attention to improper pupil behavior than to correct pupil behavior. This fact points at a coercively focused way of classroom interaction (Shore, Gunter & Jack, 1993). The use of positive verbal attention for proper behavior is the outcome of a positive mutual interaction. Education and coercion are often considered to be identical. The compulsory character of our school system makes pupils exhibit behavior that is characteristic for the symptoms of coercion such as escapism, evasion, and reactive control behavior. The last term means that one person's display of aversive behavior is reinforced in order to be able to escape from the other person's aversive behavior. Behavior judged negatively is replied negatively. In the short run this reaction may be successful. The teacher may be able to compel the pupils to behave, or the other way round, the pupil may force the teacher to exceptionally pay attention to coercive classroom control management. In the long run these interactional techniques are harmful for both teacher and pupil. Classroom management of social interactions in this way is a very undesirable management technique. Teacher behavior bringing about positive social interactions with pupils is possible and desirable. Teachers' attention in the form of praising the pupils for their work will reinforce pupil achievement and contribute to a positive social interaction. Unfortunately, the facts are that only very few teachers use the possibilities of positive reinforcement. Teachers should not only organize their classes by trying to prevent unwanted behavior, but also by positively commenting on pupils' work and behavior. Following this course of interaction will reduce disorderly behavior.

5 CLASSROOM DISCIPLINE

The word discipline recalls conflicting emotions. On the one hand discipline is necessary because a society without discipline will slip off into anarchy in which the law of the jungle is in control. On the other hand, discipline may refer to a servile submission to higher powers; the will-less submitting to rules may eventually deteriorate into arbitrariness. Good classroom management is necessary for the teacher's attempts to realize his goals. Management as such is not a goal in itself, but a road to achieve that goal. The importance of discipline in educating pupils is generally accepted, for without discipline no effective education is possible (Driekurs, Grunwald & Pepper, 1982). Discipline, however, is neither slavishly obeying rules nor implicitly charging pupils with rules, but just as in the case of classroom management, discipline is necessary in order to create a quiet classroom atmosphere. To establish discipline is the result of negotiations. In the negotiated order theory the negotiations between the teacher and the pupils are elaborated (Barquist Hogelucht & Geist, 1997). The negotiations are a form of micro-emancipation of both teacher and pupil. It means that through communication the two parties involved try to reach a mutually accepted type of order. When this goal is achieved the negotiator will be satisfied and this feeling will positively influence the classroom climate.

Seven out of ten novice teachers experience great problems in establishing classroom discipline. These teachers insufficiently realize that communication and interaction are important and essential aspects of the educational process. In this process the one party tries to discover the expectations of the other party and vice versa. Both parties listen to each other, get to know what they like to achieve and in this atmosphere of openness they find a common basis to make the instruction periods pass off smoothly. The structure of the negotiations is formed by clear and lucid rules and by the understanding both parties have of the serious consequences of disorderly behavior. The interaction on discipline gives pupils and teacher the opportunity to cooperate and bring about a positive classroom atmosphere in which education can prosper. Disciplinary problems often arise by the pupils' dissatisfaction on the way discipline is created and maintained. It is essential for good classroom discipline that both parties know about discipline and what necessitates discipline (Haroun & O'Hanlon, 1997). It is important that school discipline is based on cooperation of all parties involved. Teachers are to be helped in developing a control ideology based on the pupil's self-discipline. The main goal should be to help pupils understand why certain types of attitudes

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have to be changed for the better not only in their own interest, but in the interest of their fellow pupils and the society as a whole as well.

6 NO DISCIPLINE MEANS HEADING FOR BURNOUT

Discipline has been a matter of great concern for the last thirty years (Garibaldi, Blanchard & Brooks, 1996). Teaching knowledge and skills, educating pupils, is the teachers' main task, but they spend more time paying attention to various behavior problems of their pupils in class. It is a crucial problem that every one talks about discipline, but at the same time interprets discipline in a different way, and consequently attaches different consequences to it. In this way one teacher may be played off against the other and neither pupils nor teacher know where they stand. That is why it is important that everybody in school clearly knows what is understood by disruption of classroom order and what the consequences are for the pupil involved. It is however necessary, after having reached agreement on the definition of disorderly classroom behavior, that the teacher should indeed be able to recognize similar behavior.

Research reveals that a major part of the teacher's attention is spent on pupil behavior that is not directly related to learning. Maintaining discipline is a skill that is different from other skills when teaching pupils (Emmer & Hickman, 1991). At the same time a positive relation has been found between strong self-efficacy beliefs in the domain of discipline and strong self-efficacy beliefs in one's own effectness in teaching. Strong self-efficacy beliefs are necessary for practicing teaching on a high level, and this will create a buffer against the development of stress and burnout. Teachers having weak self-efficacy beliefs in maintaining discipline prove to have weak self-efficacy beliefs in the teaching domain. This group of teachers may be more vulnerable for stress and burnout.

Burnout teachers probably do not associate with their pupils in a sympathetic way, they have a low level of tolerance for classroom disturbances of order and discipline, and they prepare lessons on a rather low level (Byrne, 1991). Consequently, they are less involved in their job, which may result in absenteeism, and ultimately in quitting the job. Burnout teachers were asked if their situation was due to the possible existence of disciplinary problems. It appeared that teachers having little or no stressful feelings had only minor problems in maintaining discipline; they had only few intrapersonal problems and had good relations with their superiors (Parkay et al., 1988). This study also appears to have found relations between discipline and the origin of burnout.

Other studies prove that the degree of negative stress and burnout increases because of experienced difficult and disorderly pupil behavior. The subject is very important, for creating and maintaining a quiet place for pupils to live and learn is a prerequisite for teachers to be successful in their educational process (Hart, 1987; Friedman, 1991, 1995; Hoerr & West, 1992; Smith & Bourke, 1992; Borg & Falzon, 1993; Travers & Cooper, 1993; Gold & Grant, 1993; Hodge, Jupp & Taylor, 1994; Boyle, Borg, Falzon & Baglioni, 1995).

Chapter 5

TO AN INDIVIDUAL INTERVENTION

This study's starting-point is the fact that burnout teachers appear to have weak-self-efficacy beliefs. That is why the sources that may be useful in an intervening self-efficacy reinforcement program will be discussed briefly. In doing so the alternative individual intervention was given preference to group intervention. The reason is that burnout levels differ from one person to the other and moreover the working conditions may differ considerably from one teacher to the other. The teacher's burnout level is also connected with domain determined self-efficacy beliefs; individual differences are very likely to occur in this matter. These considerations may cause individual interventions to be more successful.

Then there is the question of using the word intervention instead of treatment. It is essential for interventions to be able to set up possibilities to influence the teacher's functioning, his working conditions, or both of them. The reinforcement of self-efficacy beliefs implicitly means that the subject of intervention is restricted to the teacher. The teacher is actively approached and stimulated to actively try and achieve improvements (Maddux, 1995). The word treatment implies the rather passive connotation of undergoing something in order to achieve results. An important extra benefit for the use of the term intervention is the possibility of using an intervention program as an instrument in the prevention of burnout, for instance in the case of novice teachers. The word treatment is frequently used in an acute situation of emergency.

1 SOURCES FOR STRENGTHENING SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

Self-efficacy is no inborn feature. On the contrary, individuals can strengthen or weaken their self-efficacy beliefs. Bandura (1997) mentions four sources of information of someone's self-efficacy. The first source is enactive mastery experiences. This is the most important source because it is about unique pieces of information telling the individual he is really capable of being successful in a certain domain. Even actions not finished successfully or actions that have failed may be of some importance in shaping strong efficacy beliefs. For these actions may offer the individual the opportunity to try

and look for alternative ways of solving problems in a successful way, and it learns the individual to persevere in times of misfortune.

A second source of information is vicarious experiences. Bandura describes it as the judgment of successful actions performed by comparable others, who serve as models in raising one own self-efficacy. The reason for using this source is the difficulty an individual may have in measuring his adequacy when performing actions. Comparing one's own performance with the one of a comparable other in a similar situation may tell the individual to what degree his attainments are successful.

The third source of information is verbal persuasion. According to Bandura it is the expression of faith of significant others, or information from other important sources telling individuals they possess the capabilities to master a task successfully. Especially when confronted with difficulties it is very important for an individual to be supported by the conveyance of faith in his capacities. The sources modeling and verbal persuasion proved to be important in various studies. It appeared that especially young teachers run the risk of getting burnout, because they believed school management was not very much interested in the daily instructional process and therefore did not pay much attention to it; or because there was not much opportunity to discuss classroom experiences with colleagues. Feedback lagging behind, or offered in the wrong form or at the wrong time may be the cause of feelings of doubt, fear and neglect (Chester & Beaudin, 1996).

The fourth and last source comes from physiological and affective states individuals experience in performing actions. Somatic information is for instance important in domains that are related to stressful actions. The body gives information about blood pressure, heart rhythm, breathing, but also accompanying feelings are indicative of the quality of someone's performance.

2 INTERVENTION PROGRAMS AND RESULTS

Many studies on burnout have been devoted to the study of antecedents, consequences and symptoms of the syndrome. The application of the theoretical knowledge in the development of intervention programs is only limited to a few cases. Developing intervention programs is necessary for both the individual workers as for the organization (Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli & Buunk, 1998). In spite of the fact that burnout has been subject of serious investigation for the last few decades, only few intervention programs are developed. Only little is known about the results of these programs. The scarce results

prove that emotional exhaustion, a component of the burnout syndrome, may be reduced with the help of some of these programs. The other two components, depersonalization and personal accomplishments do not seem to benefit from the interventions. Concerning the programs that are known some other points of criticism are methodological inconsistencies, for instance the lack of control groups or the non-longitudinal character of testing the program.

It would be a useful starting point in the development of intervention programs to realize that two problematic situations might occur (Cooley & Yovanoff, 1996). The problematic situation is a fact and unalterable (the givens), or the problems are alterable (the alterables). Yet, some alterables are only to be influenced in the long run; that is why the intervention had best be directed at problems alterable within measurable time. Teachers' reactions to stressful working situations are proof of this. Cooley and Yovanoff's intervention program approached situations that were alterable. During the intervention teachers had to attend a number of workshops in which they had to acquire skills helpful in the prevention or reduction of burnout. A second part consisted of offering opportunities to cooperate with their counterparts. In developing the program attention was paid to how people may differently react in stressful situations.

The intervention can be direct, i.e. the point of departure of the intervention is the source of the stress; on the other hand, there is the indirect approach, for instance the attempt to change a person's way of thinking about the stressors. The two approaches can be put into practice in an active way, the person actively tries to change the stressful situation, or in a passive way in which the stressors are denied or avoided. On the whole, the active way seems to be the more successful one, both for the direct as for the indirect approach. Cooley and Yovanoff used two groups to test the program. The results proved that the persons participating in the program had fewer burnout symptoms than the members of the non-participating group did. Measuring the level of burnout before and after the intervention is an other important condition for the validation of an intervention program; as a matter of fact it is the only way to prove the functionality of the program. The facts prove that personal intervention strategies aimed at an improvement of the teacher's professional skills are more successful than strategies using psychological techniques to reduce the consequences of stress (Jenkins & Calhoun, 1991; Kyriacou, 1987). Some interventions prefer an individual approach to a global approach. Global strategies give information in general about stress, the sources, and the consequences, and how to deal with it. Individual strategies depart from dealing with the problem by

mentioning the most important personal stressor, clarifying the personal consequences, and taking responsibility for the stressor by the preparedness to do something about it. When the two strategies are compared the individual approach appears to be the more variable one, and also the one devoting more time to solve the problem. The individual approach leads to better results. Burke et al. (1996) start from the principle that burnout is a process and they argue that an intervention at an early stage will prevent an unnecessary deterioration of the syndrome.

Research can prove the correctness of their thesis. For instance, teachers in training were matched with experienced teachers (Hasbrouck, 1997). The matching breaks the isolation of the inexperienced teacher who will also learn that it is important and quite normal to ask for cooperation and help. Moreover, the teacher learns to focus on instruction and he will get the opportunity to practise the newly acquired knowledge. The goals of this way of training are the reinforcement of didactic skills and the passing down of instruments for being a successful professional in the future. An effective approach of burnout had rather be directed at prevention than treatment (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). So, it is quite understandable to give priority to an intervention in the developing burnout process as early as possible.

3 INTERVENTION BASED ON SELF-EFFICACY

The quest for and development of interventions often make use of the self-efficacy theory (Maddux, 1995; Van Dierendonck et al., 1998). Strong self-efficacy beliefs are important for the psychological pliability and adaptation of the individual. When, through weak self-efficacy beliefs people get into difficulties, they can try and find help to restore and even strengthen the self-efficacy beliefs. Professional help is to be preferred to incidental trivial help because the first is a structured and specific kind of help. The confidence in one's self-efficacy beliefs influences the psychological adaptation through the consequences of it on goal-setting and on reinforcing attempts to be successful in doing so, through cognitive influences, and, last, through improving the emotional well-being of the person involved.

The best strategy to be used in an intervention should be directed at the active involvement of the person concerned. The active successful own experiences are the most important contributors to someone's self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997). But also strategies based on modeling, verbal persuasion and influencing emotional and

physiological reactions may be very useful. By helping people to get control over events and situations during their participation in the intervention program, a change for the better may be induced.

The stages of the change process are, first, the stage of awareness of problems. Second, the stage of reflection on them, followed by the preparation period during which pros and cons are weighed one against the other. Fourth, the stage of actively working on a change for the better, and finally a stage of the retention and strengthening of the successes acquired. Measuring self-efficacy beliefs before, during, and after the intervention is important to judge the success of the program.

The possibility of employing the self-efficacy theory has been confirmed in many practical situations (Bandura, 1997). People appear to dysfunction because of weak self-efficacy beliefs. Measuring the domains of dysfunctioning, the intervention can be directed at the specific areas that are important for the person involved.

Capter 6

CONCLUSION

In this chapter conclusions will be presented concerning the three main constructs of this study.

Burnout

- Burnout is a job related syndrome characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment. Burnout is especially found among professionals working for and with people such as clients, patients and pupils
- Burnout is not a situation, but gradually grows into a level on which the professional dysfunctions.
- Burnout is a syndrome that may occur in people who have performed well in their job for a certain period of time.
- As burnout is non-existing in new professionals, measures can be taken to prevent the onset of burnout.
- Appearance of burnout symptoms is not irreversible. Burnout can not only be prevented, but can also be fought against with intervention programs.

Teacher burnout

- Many teachers are burnout. In Holland teacher burnout is highest compared to other professions (CBS, 1999).
- Studies reveal that teachers should closely cooperate with pupils in order to achieve educational goals and to function satisfactorily.
- The necessary consequences to attain these goals are classroom order and discipline, however without the former negative connotations.
- Lack of order and discipline is often mentioned by teachers as being the main source of burnout.
- Absence of a good classroom atmosphere may find its origin in a lack of skills (the behavioral aspect). It may also be caused by weak self-efficacy beliefs (the cognitive aspect). Sometimes both aspects are involved.

- It is required to try and find out whether lack of skills or weak self-efficacy beliefs are the cause of bad classroom management. With the help of an assessment procedure the decision can be made which intervention is going to be most successful for a specific teacher in a specific situation. Interventions fitting in with the teacher's problems will be the more successful ones. The term assessment is used in the meaning of both measuring the teacher's burnout level and the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs.

Self-efficacy

- The self-efficacy theory, part of the social cognitive theory of Bandura, proves to have sufficient explanatory powers for the onset of burnout
- Self-efficacy beliefs are domain related. It means that an intervention with the help of the self-efficacy theory will produce better successes when self-efficacy beliefs are reinforced per domain. Intervening the domain of classroom management is quite plausible because of the fact that disorderly pupil behavior is an important predictor of burnout.
- Self-efficacy beliefs do not only differ in strength per domain, but also during the various periods of the teacher's career. Novice teachers, for instance, often have sufficient self-efficacy beliefs, but they may experience a weakening of these beliefs during the first year of their career.
- Self-efficacy beliefs can be reinforced by using the four sources of information. They are enactive mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states when performing actions.

Intervention

- At the moment of writing there are no intervention programs available for teachers to train classroom management on a social cognitive basis. A program of the kind would be very important because of the predictive power of the self-efficacy theory in reducing burnout among teachers.
- The results of longitudinal studies are sufficient reason to believe in the prevention or remedy of teacher burnout with the help of a self-efficacy based intervention program.
- The social cognitive theory offers concrete starting-points to develop intervention programs.
- Interventions based on the social cognitive theory have been successful.

- Individual-orientateded interventions are advantageous as compared with group-orientated interventions. The teacher will get an intervention directed at his specific problems. The intervention can be attended without disturbing the daily routine in the school. The teacher need not tell others he has problems of any kind. The intervention's pace can be adapted to the teacher involved.

Chapter 7

THE NECESSITY OF DEVELOPING AN INTERVENTION PROGRAM

INTRODUCTION

The next part is a brief description of a possible sequel of the feasibility study. First, the development and realization of a sequel project is described in short. Second, the method how to strengthen self-efficacy beliefs is set out. Finally, three alternative intervention programs are mentioned. The development and realization of an intervention as well as the reinforcement of the self-efficacy beliefs are rather independent of the alternative that will ultimately be selected.

THE FEASIBILITY STUDY

The feasibility study concludes that no proper intervention program is available paying attention to the teacher's experience of disorderly behavior in the classroom. This conclusion could be called the present existing situation. Furthermore, it became clear that it would be possible to develop and realize an intervention program for a specific group of people founded on the results of scientific theoretical research. The latter statement could be called the desired situation.

CONTENTS OF AN INTERVENTION PROGRAM

The contents of the intervention program should promote the reinforcement of self-efficacy beliefs related to classroom management, namely the prevention of disorderly behavior, adequate instruction skills (also teaching and coaching in the so-called "study-house"), social intercourse with colleagues and relaxation exercises in relation with the personal lifestyle. The scientific and theoretical justification has been discussed in the feasibility study.

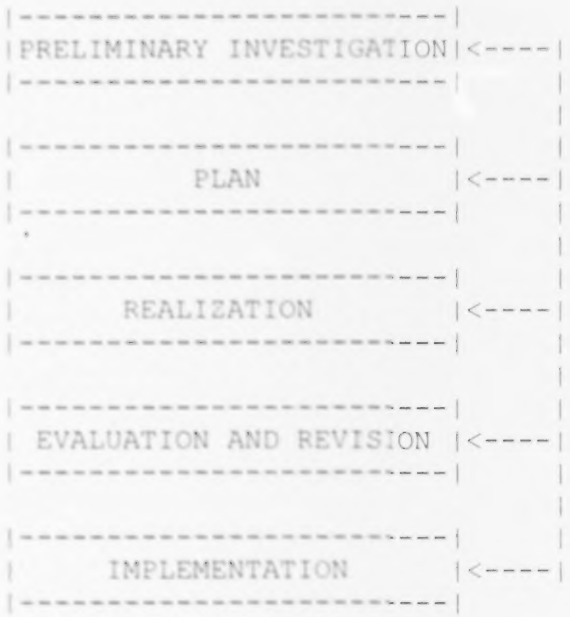
GOALS OF THE INTERVENTION PROGRAM

An important goal of the intervention program for the reinforcement of the teacher's self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management is an improvement of the teacher's knowledge and a better understanding of a number of relevant skills. The knowledge refers to the contents, the goals and the functions of these skills and the classroom situations in which they are to be used. The skills can be divided in instruction and coaching skills, skills for the prevention of classroom disorders, and skills for associating with colleagues.

The second goal of the intervention program for the reinforcement of the teacher's self-efficacy is the enhancement of skills mentioned before by the teacher.

METHOD OF DEVELOPMENT

In order to achieve the desired situation- the realization of an intervention program- the following model will be used.



PROJECT METHOD OF AN INTERVENTION PROGRAM

In the stage of preliminary investigation the feasibility study was completed. In the stage of planning a blueprint of the program will be produced. The developed and transcribed

plan is the starting point for the stage of realization and construction in which the program will be produced. In it all kinds of production activities will take place, for instance activities concerning the contents of the program or the production of audiovisual aids and appliances. In the next stage the intervention program will be tested in practice and after that it will be evaluated. The resulting data will decide whether the intervention program is satisfactory or has to be improved. Finally, the program will be implemented. The intervention program will be handed over to the principals who can include the program in their supply.

MICRO TRAINING: A METHOD FOR THE REINFORCEMENT OF SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS

The goals mentioned before can be realized by the method of micro training. This method was originally developed for training teachers and people working in the helping professions. It consists of the following elements: the conveyance of theoretical knowledge, modeling, practicing for oneself, giving feedback, and transfer of knowledge and skills acquired.

The most striking characteristic of this method is the possibility to distinguish various kinds of skills and to systematically practice them. These skills had better be learned separately: that is why the method is called micro training. The method's advantage is a simplification of a complex and practical situation. So the first there is a simplified situation in which the skills can be practised. Micro training has been widely used in Holland. The following steps are to be distinguished in this method.

Theory

In view of the first goal, improvement of knowledge and skills, teachers will have to study literature and acquire information about goals, contents and functions of the skills before participating in the program. The information will be elucidated during the sessions.

Modeling

Also in view of the first goal, new skills being in the limelight during a training session will be demonstrated with the help of video registrations. Mostly, two fragments will be shown. In the first- the incorrect- example an inadequate us of the skill is demonstrated. In the second- the correct- example an adequate use of the skill is demonstrated. By showing two examples the program tries to bring about two effects. First, teachers learn to distinguish the

specific behavioral aspect, because only the relevant aspect (the use of the skill involved) is varied when at the same time the other aspects of the situation are the same. Second, the correct example is meant to be a model for the teacher's behavior.

Practising for oneself

In the next stage the teachers' skills are practised in class for about 5 minutes, with the intention to adequately practise the skill under discussion. In view of the functional application of the skills, the skills practised during earlier sessions may be used as well. The cumulative element of micro training is important for the retention of the program's results.

Feedback

Immediately after the teacher's use of a particular skill, constructive feedback will be given on the way the teacher practised the skill. First of all attention is paid to what was correct, and only after that attention is paid to what went wrong. For instance an answer should be given to the question why something did not work. When giving feedback it is advisable to use video pictures. Feedback is important for finding out various ways of reacting to situations. The training has to be as concrete as possible in the formulation and presentation of alternatives. At the end of each session the program offers a recapitulation in which the following questions are answered:

a. How is the skill under discussion put into practice?
b. What was performed well by the teacher?
c. What (i.e. behavior) should be improved? Information about part of the program is pointed out for the next session to be paid attention to.

From the information given before, it becomes clear that a structured didactic approach was preferred. In many empirical studies proof was found that the addition of each element increased the effect of learning. The variety of the method is another striking point. It may be taken for granted that because of this the teachers' attention will be concentrated on the subjects under discussion.

Transfer to practical situations

It is important to insert the fifth element, transfer of training, in the method. This element instructs the teachers to put the newly learned skills into practice. The ultimate goal for that matter is to make teachers take advantage of the program in every day situations.

Alternatives of the program

Three variants of the suggested intervention program are discussed briefly. First, the so-called classic program, in which the teachers receive the contents of the program in writing or through another device of information and will be supported by a trainer/coach.

The second variant is completely based on ICT. The program is highly interactive (text, video shots, tasks, feed back, etc) and is presented on CD-ROM so that it can be used individually. If necessary, the program could be presented on Internet on a close site.

Third, a mixture of the first two variants is possible.

The choice that is made will have budgetary consequences. The development and realization of the ICT variant will be the most expensive one. However, the exploitation will be cheaper than the other two variants. The development and realization of the first alternative will be the cheapest one, but the exploitation will be the most expensive one of the three variants. The mixture will require a budget that is in between the first and the second alternative, both for development and realization and for the exploitation.

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